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Although consumer behaviour (CB) is one of the most researched areas in the field of tourism, few extensive reviews of the body of knowledge in this area exist. This review article examines what we argue are the key concepts, external influences and opportune research contexts in contemporary tourism CB research. Using a narrative review, we examine the CB literature published in three major tourism journals from 2000 to 2012. Of 519 articles identified and reviewed, 191 are included in this article. We examine the development of and scope for future research on nine key concepts, including decision-making, values, motivations, self-concept and personality, expectations, attitudes, perceptions, satisfaction, trust and loyalty. We then examine three important external influences on tourism behaviour, technology, Generation Y and the rise in concern over ethical consumption. Finally, we identify and discuss five research contexts that represent major areas for future scholarship: group and joint decision-making, under-researched segments, cross-cultural issues in emerging markets, emotions and consumer misbehaviour. Our examination of key research gaps is concluded by arguing that the hedonic and affective aspects of CB research in tourism must be brought to bear on the wider CB and marketing literature.

Keywords: consumption; travel; behaviour; marketing; research agenda

Introduction

Consumer behaviour (CB) involves certain decisions, activities, ideas or experiences that satisfy consumer needs and wants (Solomon, 1996). It is 'concerned with all activities directly involved in obtaining, consuming and disposing of products and services, including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions' (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995, p. 4). CB remains one of the most researched areas in the marketing and tourism fields, with the terms 'travel behaviour' or 'tourist behaviour' typically used to describe this area of inquiry. Few comprehensive reviews of the literature on CB concepts and models exist in the field of tourism. Exceptions include Moutinho (1993) who reviews the social and psychological influences on individual travel behaviour with the aim of developing a model of tourist behaviour and Dimanche and Havitz (1995) who review

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four concepts (ego-involvement, loyalty and commitment, family decision-making and novelty-seeking) in an attempt to methodologically advance CB in tourism studies.

A lack of comprehensive reviews is not only due to the extensive breadth of the topic area itself, but also because travel behaviour is generally considered as a continuous process that includes varied yet inter-correlated stages and concepts that cannot always be analysed separately (Mill & Morrison, 2002). Tourism researchers have reviewed individual concepts (e.g. Riley, Niininen, Szivas, & Willis, 2001, on loyalty), specific influences (e.g. Moutinho, 1993, on social influences on CB), and particular research contexts (e.g. Hong, Lee, Lee, & Jang, 2009, on first time versus repeat visitation), without situating such reviews in the broader context of travel or tourist behaviour. For example, concepts, influences and research contexts can be studied for a specific travel stage (pre-visit, on-site and post-visit) in the visitation process (e.g. Frias, Rodriguez, & Castaneda, 2008, on pre-visit factors in the formation of destination image). Figure 1 shows a proposed conceptual model of the link between concepts, influences and research contexts.

Mazanec (2009) argues that the replication of standard conceptual frameworks and measures inhibits progress in tourism research. Innovation has been constrained by the application of paradigms, models and methods drawn from other disciplines without questioning their applicability to tourism (McKercher, Denizci-Guillet, & Ng, 2012). Recently, some studies of travel behaviour explicitly question the validity and applicability of theories and models borrowed from mainstream CB literature in the marketing field. For example, Boksberger, Dolnicar, Laesser, and Randle (2011) find that a strict operationalisation of the self-concept similar to the marketing field is not applicable in tourism. Others test the applicability of the theory of planned behaviour to destination choice decisions and suggest that it can explain the link between attitudes and behaviour in this context (Lam & Hsu, 2006).

The existing body of research on travel behaviour can therefore best be seen as fragmented due to: (1) individual studies replicating one or a few CB concepts borrowed from marketing and general management fields and applying them to tourism; (2) many studies investigate the same effect (e.g. satisfaction → loyalty), but the results cannot be compared due to differences in the research contexts based on tourist types or destinations, thereby hindering generalisation; (3) quantitative approaches dominate CB research but the use of experimental designs that quantify the effects of independent stimuli on behavioural responses remains in its infancy, leading often to erroneous causality effects; and (4) few
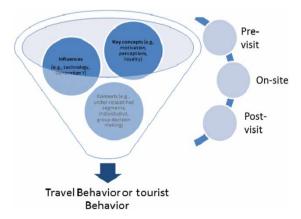

Figure 1. Conceptual model of link between concepts, influences and research contexts.

studies use longitudinal and/or holistic approaches to understand the behaviour or processes being investigated.

   Against this background and using a narrative review approach (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999), this article reviews the CB literature published in three major tourism journals – *Annals of Tourism Research, Tourism Management* and the *Journal of Travel Research* – from 2000 to 2012. These journals were chosen because they have a history of publishing CB-related articles and are usually considered the top three mainstream tourism journals (Hall, 2011; Ryan, 2005). We focus on studies from 2000 onwards in order to identify contemporary trends in CB research and emerging topics. Given the large number of studies related to CB, we include almost exclusively articles that focus on tourism CB when set in the context of their marketing implications. We also base the narrative review around Figure 1, with a specific focus on selected key concepts, influences and opportune research contexts. We do however sparingly take recourse to key texts that do not fit these criteria, including books, and a handful of articles that do not develop their marketing implications nor are in the three surveyed journals, in order to pragmatically construct our review's argument where evidence was otherwise not available. We also draw upon some pre-2000 seminal articles from both tourism and the wider CB and marketing fields in discussing our findings. Our inclusion criteria thus serve as a guide, but not a steadfast set of rules. A total of 519 articles were initially identified (Table 1) and reviewed from the three journals

Table 1. Key concepts, influences and research contexts reviewed in the three leading mainstream tourism journals.

2000–2012	*Annals of Tourism Research* (ATR)	*Tourism Management* (TM)	*Journal of Travel Research* (JTR)	Total number of articles
Key concepts	**77**	**139**	**167**	**383**
Decision-making	15	11	23	49
Values	2	4	3	9
Motivations	12	40	37	89
Self-concept and personality	4	7	5	16
Attitudes and expectations	17	12	12	41
Perceptions	8	21	33	62
Satisfaction, trust and loyalty	19	44	54	117
Influences	**11**	**20**	**14**	**45**
Technology	4	18	7	29
Generation Y	2	1	4	7
Ethical consumption	5	1	3	9
Research contexts	**33**	**41**	**17**	**91**
Group and joint decision-making	3	5	1	9
Under-researched segments	5	15	4	24
Cross-cultural issues in emerging markets	9	8	7	24
Emotions	7	9	4	20
Consumer misbehaviour	9	4	1	14
Total	121	200	198	519

with 191 of those ultimately included here. Their inclusion is based on our own assessment of their relevance and significance to the advancement of tourism CB knowledge.

The remainder of this review is organised following the approach suggested in Figure 1. First we review nine key concepts: decision-making, values, motivations, self-concept and personality, expectations, attitudes, perceptions, satisfaction and trust and loyalty. For each concept, we critically examine definitional issues, its historical deployment in tourism research and our recommendations for where future research on these concepts should focus. We then review three topical external influences that we have identified as important contemporary factors impacting tourism CB: technology, Generation Y and ethical consumption. Finally, we discuss five major areas that are opportune for future research that we have identified from a review of the research contexts in tourism CB studies: group and joint decision-making, under-researched segments, cross-cultural issues in emerging markets, emotions and consumer misbehaviour. We thus seek here to contribute to the literature with a current review of tourism CB that establishes: (1) a state-of-the-art review of the key conceptual approaches used for understanding CB in the tourism field; (2) how some recent critical external factors are influencing these topics; and (3) a future research agenda in tourism CB as based on our analysis.

Key concepts in tourism CB

Our review begins by examining what we believe to be the key concepts in tourism CB research. Our coverage of the key concepts is therefore intentionally not exhaustive, but rather places emphasis on what we believe to be the most important conceptual dimensions of tourism CB research: decision-making, values, motivations, self-concept and personality, expectations, attitudes, perceptions, satisfaction and trust and loyalty. We address these concepts sequentially, by teasing out definitional issues, tracing their historical use in tourism research and identifying research gaps. From Table 1, it is clear that among the concepts reviewed, motivations ($n = 89$) and satisfaction, trust and loyalty ($n = 117$) are the most researched while values ($n = 9$) and self-concept and personality ($n = 16$) are the least researched. Table 2 summarises the studies ($n = 126$) included that relate to the key concepts.

Decision-making

Understanding consumer decision-making is a cornerstone of marketing strategy. CB in tourism is underpinned by general assumptions about how decisions are made. The processes involved in CB decision-making require the use of models rather than definitions alone to understand their complexity (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2004). Traditionally, CB research has been influenced by research outside tourism, notably the classical buyer behaviour school of thought (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The offspring of this school of thought, whether the grand models of CB (Engel, Kollat, & Blackwell, 1968; Howard & Sheth, 1969) or tourism CB models (Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Wahab, Crompton, & Rothfield, 1976) view consumers as rational decision-makers. One of the main assumptions of these models is that decisions are thought to follow a sequence from attitude to intention to behaviour (Decrop, 2010; Decrop & Snelders, 2004). CB research in tourism continues to be marked by studies underpinned by the assumption of rational decision-making. These studies explore causal relationships by means of 'variance' analysis, which estimates how much of an outcome (or dependent) variable is explained by relevant explanatory (or independent) variables (Smallman & Moore, 2010). The theories of Reasoned Action and Planned Behaviour, which are based on the expectancy-value model of attitudes (Fishbein, 1963), are examples of

Table 2.   Articles cited in this review from the three leading mainstream tourism journals.

Key concepts	ATR (author/year)	TM (author/year)	JTR (author/year)	Total number of articles included in the review
Decision-making	Decrop and Snelders (2004); Decrop (2010); March and Woodside (2005); Nicolau and Más (2005); Oh and Hsu (2001); Smallman and Moore (2010)	Bargeman and Poel (2006); Bronner and de Hoog (2008); Dolnicar et al. (2008); Kang and Hsu (2005); Quintal, Lee, and Soutar (2010); Sirakaya and Woodside (2005)	Barros, Butler, and Correia (2008); Choi, Lehto, Morrison and Jang (2012); Hyde and Lawson (2003); Litvin, Xu, and Kang (2004); Woodside, Caldwell, and Spurr (2006)	17
Values	Crick-Furman and Prentice (2000); Watkins and Gnoth (2011a)	Lopez-Mosquera and Sanchez (2011); Money and Crotts (2003)	Li and Cai (2012); Watkins and Gnoth (2011b); Wong and Lau (2001)	7
Motivations	Goossens (2000); Maoz (2007); McCabe (2000); Tran and Ralston (2006); White and Thompson (2009)	Buckley (2012); Chen and Chen (2011); Devesa, Laguna, and Palacios (2010); Hung and Petrick (2011); Kerstetter, Hou, and Lin (2004); Kim and Prideaux (2005); Kang, Scott, Lee, and Ballantyne (2012); Kozak (2002); Hyde and Harman (2011); Ye, Qiu, and Yuen (2011); Yoon and Uysal (2005)	Bieger and Laesser (2002); Hsu, Cai, and Li (2010); Klenosky (2002); Lau and McKercher (2004); Nicholson and Pearce (2001); Pearce and Lee (2005); Poria, Reichel, and Biran (2006); Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006)	24
Self-concept and personality	Beerli, Meneses, and Gil (2007); Hyde and Olesen (2011); Kim and Jamal (2007)	Faullant, Matzler, and Mooradian (2011); Galloway (2002); Hung and Petrick (2012); Lepp and Gibson (2008); Sohn and Lee (2012); Stokburger-Sauer (2011); Usakli and Baloglu (2011); Weaver (2012)	Boksberger et al. (2011); Plog (2002); Sirgy and Su (2000)	14
Expectations	Khan (2003)	Briggs, Sutherland, and Drummond (2007); del Bosque, Martin, and Collado (2006); Sheng and Chen (2012); Truong and Foster (2006)	Andereck, McGehee, Lee, and Clemmons (2012); Fluker and Turner (2000)	7

(*Continued*)

Table 2. Continued.

Key concepts	ATR (author/year)	TM (author/year)	JTR (author/year)	Total number of articles included in the review
Attitudes	Jacobsen (2000); Nyaupane, Teye, and Paris (2008)	Higham and Cohen (2011); Lee, Kim, Seock, and Cho (2009); Yuksel, Kilinic, and Yuksel (2006)	Morosan (2012)	6
Perceptions	Frantal and Kunc (2011)	Fuchs and Reichel (2011); George (2010); Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009); Yu and Ko (2012)	Axelsen and Swan (2010); Barker, Page, and Meyer (2003); Lee and Lockshin (2012); Li and Stepchenkova (2012); Pike and Ryan (2004)	10
Satisfaction	Alegre and Garau (2010); Baker and Crompton (2000); Nam, Ekinci, and Whyatt (2011); Petrick (2002); Petrick and Sirakaya (2004); Song, Veen, Li, and Chen (2012); Um, Chon, and Ro (2006); Williams and Soutar (2009)	Akama and Kieti (2003); Bowen (2001); Hui, Wan, and Ho (2007); Hutchinson, Lai, and Wang (2009); Hwang, Lee, and Chen (2005); Kim and Lee (2011); Master and Prideaux (2000); Wu (2007); Yuksel, Yuksel, and Bilim (2010)	Alegre and Cladera (2006); Bosnjak, Sirgy, Hellriegel, and Maurer (2011); Bradley and Sparks (2012); Crompton (2003); Getz, O'Neill, and Carlsen (2001); Huang and Hsu (2010); Kozak and Rimmington (2000); Magnini, Crotts, and Zehrer (2011); Matzler, Fuller, Renzl, Herting, and Spath (2008); Prayag and Ryan (2012); Reisinger and Turner (2002a); Tsang and Ap (2007)	29
Trust and loyalty	McKercher et al. (2012)	Bigné, Sanchez, and Sanchez (2001); Fam, Foscht, and Collins (2004); Kim, Chung, and Lee (2011); Sparks and Browning (2011); Kim, Kim, and Kim (2009); Kim, Kim, and Shin (2009); Petrick (2004a)	Campo and Yague (2008); Oppermann (2000); Li and Petrick (2008); Petrick, Morais, and Norman (2001)	12
Sub-total	29	54	43	126

(*Continued*)

Table 2.   Continued.

Influences	ATR (author/year)	TM (author/year)	JTR (author/year)	Total number of articles included in the review
Technology	Shoval and Isaacson (2007)	Buhalis and Law (2008); Chang and Caneday (2011); Martin and Herrero (2012); Orellana, Bregt, Ligtenberg, and Wachowicz (2012); Papathanassis and Knolle (2011); Vermeulen and Seegers (2009); Xiang and Gretzel (2010); Zehrer, Crotts, and Magnini (2011)	Dickinger (2011); Fesenmaier, Xiang, Pan, and Law (2011); Yacouel and Fleischer (2012); Wang, Park, and Fesenmaier (2012)	13
Generation Y	Ong and du Cros (2012)	Nusair, Parsa, and Cobanoglu (2011)	Beldona (2005)	3
Ethical consumption	Gössling, Scott, Hall, Ceron, and Dubois (2012); Miller, Rathouse, Scarles, Holmes, and Tribe (2010)			2
Sub-total	4	9	5	18
Research contexts				
Group and joint decision-making	Hong, Lee, Lee, and Jang (2009)	Bojanic (2011); Campo-Martinez, Garau-Vadell, and Martinez-Ruiz (2010); Kozak (2010); Qu and Lee (2011); Wang, Hsieh, Yeh, and Tsai (2004)	Hsu, Kang, and Lam (2006); Litvin et al. (2004)	8
Under-researched segments	Daruwalla and Darcy (2005); Eichhorn, Miller, Michopoulou, and Buhalis (2008)	Chang and Chen (2012); Darcy (2010); Hughs and Deutsch (2010); Janta, Ladkin, Brown, and Lugosi (2011); Lee, Agarwal, and Kim (2012); Melián-González, Moreno-Gil, and Araña (2011); Small, Darcy, and Packer (2012)	Poria (2006)	10

(*Continued*)

Table 2.   Continued.

Research contexts	ATR (author/year)	TM (author/year)	JTR (author/year)	Total number of articles included in the review
Cross-cultural issues in emerging markets	Bandyopadhyay (2012); Cohen and Cohen (2012)	Choi, Liu, Pang, and Chow (2008); Choi, Tkachenko, and Sil (2011); Kim, Borges, and Chon (2006); Lee and Lee (2009); Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline, and Wang (2011); Xu and McGehee (2012)	Crotts and Litvin (2003); Reisinger and Turner (2002b)	10
Emotions	Pearce (2012)	Ballantyne, Packer, and Sutherland (2011); Carnicelli-Filho, Schwartz, and Tahara (2010); Grappi and Montanari (2011)	Hosany (2012); Hosany and Gilbert (2010); Lee, Lee, and Choi (2011); Lee, Petrick, and Crompton (2007); Nawijn (2011)	9
Consumer misbehaviour	Cohen, Higham, and Cavaliere (2011); Harris (2012); Kozak (2007); Sönmez et al. (2006); Uriely, Ram, and Malach-Pines (2011)	Brunt, Mawby, and Hambly (2000); Chen-Hua and Hsin-Li (2012); Larsen, Brun, and Øgaard (2009); Sánchez-García and Currás-Pérez (2011)	Uriely and Belhassen (2005)	10
Sub-total	11	25	11	47
Total	44	88	59	191

sequential theories which continue to be used by tourism researchers (Oh & Hsu, 2001; Quintal et al., 2010).

These models continue to be criticised by several researchers, who challenge their assumptions. One of the main arguments against such models is that they are unable to capture the complexity of decision-making in tourism, which comes from the unique context in which travel decisions are made (Hyde & Lawson, 2003). Complexity arises from the fact that travel decision-making involves multiple decisions about the various elements of the vacation itinerary (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Hyde & Lawson, 2003), some of which are made prior to the arrival, while others are made while at the destination (Choi et al., 2012). Moreover, these models do not take into account dyadic or group decisions, which have been shown to be common in a tourism context (Bronner & de Hoog, 2008; Kang & Hsu, 2005; Litvin et al., 2004) and which we will discuss further in the section on group and joint decision-making. Finally, complexity is also heightened by the fact that many travel decisions are highly influenced by situational factors (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; March & Woodside, 2005).

We argue that such levels of complexity can only be fully captured through a focus on the *process* of tourist decision-making. Yet, research on tourist decision-making continues to focus little on process aspects. The ability of choice models to capture the process aspects of decision-making is heavily criticised (Smallman & Moore, 2010), suggesting that these can only be captured through less-structured methodologies involving narrative accounts of actions and activities. Some (mainly quantitative) studies purporting to focus on process aspects (Barros et al., 2008; Nicolau & Más, 2005) are thus better viewed as 'choice set' models (Smallman & Moore, 2010), hence concentrating on the outputs of the decision-making process rather than the process itself. We concur with Smallman and Moore's (2010) view that more process studies are needed.

Tourism CB overwhelmingly studies CB as if the travel decision-making process takes place independently of other consumption decisions. Few studies attempt to move away from such an isolationist, tourist decision-centred approach. As exceptions, using ecological systems theory, Woodside et al. (2006) examine the decision to travel in relation to alternative leisure activities; and Dolnicar et al. (2008) focus on the allocation of expenditure to travel in the context of other household expenditures. While both studies make an important contribution, future research should focus more on the interdependencies between tourism and other consumption decisions, particularly in light of increasing economic uncertainties in the western world, which are affecting discretionary consumption patterns.

Much of the CB research appears to rest on the assumption that travel decisions are thoroughly planned. Yet, evidence has started to emerge that challenges such thinking. For example, Hyde and Lawson (2003) find tourist decisions involve planned, unplanned and impulse purchases. Similarly, Bargeman and van der Poel (2006, p. 718) conclude that 'it appears that the vacation decision-making processes . . . are much less extensive and far more routinised than described in the rational choice models'. As travel becomes a frequent purchase for some, and is increasingly part of everyday life, further examination of the routine aspects of travel decisions are required, when both new and previously visited destinations (or travel products consumed) are involved. As most existing tourism CB research assumes thoroughly planned decisions (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), the habituated aspects of tourist decision-making and its implications for tourism marketing are in urgent need of research.

Values

A value is 'an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode' (Rokeach, 1973,

p. 5). In the marketing field, values are seen to influence the behaviour of consumers with respect to choice of product categories, brands and product attributes (Vinson, Scott, & Lamont, 1977). Motivations, choice of tourist destinations and the experiential value of a holiday are linked to consumer values in tourism (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000). Consumer values largely guide actions, attitudes, emotions, judgments and behaviour (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000). The tourism literature focuses on two types of values, instrumental (external) and terminal (internal). Instrumental values are object-directed and are based on knowledge of the object, such as goal, experience or situation (Prentice, 1987). Terminal values are directed towards classes of objects rather than specific objects in themselves (Gnoth, 1997).

Existing popular scales for the measurement of consumer values include the Rokeach's Value Survey (1973) and Khale's List of Values scale. Consumer values tend to be more stable than attitudes over time (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000; Rokeach, 1973). Alongside personal values, cultural and environmental values receive some attention in the tourism literature (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000; Lopez-Masquera & Sanchez, 2011; Money & Crotts, 2003). For example, Hofstede's (1980) four value dimensions remain widely applied as a tool to evaluate cultural values. Yet, Hofstede's conceptualisation of personal values is criticised for its etic perspective and, for instance, the use of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) value orientation framework has instead been suggested for its more emic approach (see Watkins & Gnoth, 2011a). Also, applications of 'non-Western' scales such as the Chinese Value Survey (Wong & Lau, 2001) remain exceptions in understanding the values of tourists from emerging markets.

One of the most popular theories used to understand consumer values in tourism research is the means−end theory, operationalised through the laddering technique. Means−end theory suggests that consumers have a cognitive hierarchy of means to achieve consumption goals (McIntosh & Thyne, 2005). Hence, as a method, '... laddering facilitates understanding of how cognitive attributes are perceived to provide benefits or consequences, which in turn satisfy personal values' (Pike, 2012, p. 102). Lopez-Mosquera and Sanchez (2011) use means−end theory to understand how personal values influence the economic-use valuation of peri-urban green spaces. Li and Cai (2012) evaluate the effects of personal values on motivation and behavioural intention, showing a direct effect of both internal and external values on travel motivation. These authors are unable to establish a direct link between external values and behavioural intentions, while the relationship between internal values and the former is supported. Watkins and Gnoth (2011b) apply means−end theory to understand Japanese tourists' values that drive travel choices in New Zealand. Critics of the theory argue that the approach may force relationships between values and behaviour that may not be recognised by the individual [tourist] or have any clear meaning (McIntosh & Thyne, 2005). Also, existing studies fail to recognise that some values, whether personal or social, transform over time and that as a society modernises, in emerging markets for example, a shift in values occur. Few attempts have been made to understand these changes for both western and emerging markets and how they influence tourist behaviour.

Motivations

Motivation receives a great deal of attention from tourism academics, given its importance in marketing decisions such as segmentation, product development, advertising and positioning (Bieger & Laesser, 2002). Motivation is perhaps best described as 'psychological/biological needs and wants, including integral forces that arouse, direct and integrate a person's behaviour and activity' (Yoon & Uysal, 2005, p. 46). Several theories or

models have been developed to explain motivation (see Gnoth, 1997; Hsu et al., 2010) and early studies such as those of Plog's (1974) 'allocentric−psychocentric', Dann's (1977) 'push−pull', Pearce's (1988) 'travel career ladder' and Ross and Iso-Ahola's (1991) 'escape seeking' are instrumental. Pearce and Lee (2005) reaffirm the findings of previous studies that tourist push motivations are four-fold in nature (novelty seeking, escape/relaxation, kinship/relationship enhancement and self-development). Gnoth (1997) specifically distinguishes between motives and motivations, arguing that the former is the tourist's lasting disposition, recurring with cyclical regularity (behaviourist approach), and the latter indicates object-specific preferences (cognitivist approach). However, it can be argued that tourist motivation is characterised neither by a behaviourist nor by a cognitivist approach but rather by a combination of both (McCabe, 2000). Accordingly, to date a theoretically robust conceptualisation of motivation remains elusive (White & Thompson, 2009) and researchers continue to treat the two concepts as one and the same.

The push−pull approach remains the most widely applied for explaining motivations, given its simplicity and intuitive approach (Klenosky, 2002). Tourists are pushed by their biogenic and emotional needs to travel and pulled by destination attributes (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). This process is moderated by factors such as involvement, imagery and emotions (Goossens, 2000; White & Thompson, 2009). The push−pull approach is often used for market segmentation purposes with the aim of profiling visitors. Similarly, the influence of demographic and travelling characteristics on motivations is thoroughly investigated (Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Kozak, 2002; Lau & McKercher, 2004).

In recent years, an emerging research strand explores how motivation influences pre-visit factors such as expectation and attitudes (Hsu et al., 2010) and post-visit factors such as loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Also, given that the motivations of the pleasure travel market are well researched, authors are exploring the motivations of other prominent niche markets such as backpacker tourism (Maoz, 2007), wine tourism (White & Thompson, 2009), events (Nicholson & Pearce, 2001), culture and heritage tourism (Poria et al., 2006), battlefield and dark tourism (Hyde & Harman, 2011; Kang et al., 2012), rural tourism (Devesa et al., 2010), volunteer tourism (Chen & Chen, 2011), cruise tourism (Hung & Petrick, 2011), adventure and eco-tourism (Buckley, 2012; Kerstetter et al., 2004) and medical tourism (Ye et al., 2011).

In addition, many of the earlier models or theories of tourist motivation are either conceptual or tested on small samples (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2004). More recently, some studies (Pearce & Lee, 2005; Snepenger et al., 2006; Tran & Ralston, 2006) empirically test or extend the validity of such models and theories. They generally conclude that the original theories and models are still valid and applicable to pleasure-seeking tourists mainly. For example, Snepenger et al. (2006) test the validity of Iso-Ahola's (1982) motivation theory and conclude that the four-factor structure (i.e. personal seeking, personal escape, intrapersonal seeking and intrapersonal escape) operates as a salient intrinsic motivation for tourism behaviour but differences in motivation are notable between tourism and recreation experiences. Volunteer tourists, for example, can be motivated by other factors such as altruism (Chen & Chen, 2011).

The relationship between motivation and other behavioural constructs such as expectation and attitude is surprisingly rarely studied (Hsu et al., 2010). Also, most studies focus on motivation per se, ignoring the formation of motivation (Gnoth, 1997). The relationship between motivation and emotions, moods, brand personality and affective constructs such as brand and destination attachment remains unexplored. These are certainly worthwhile future areas of inquiry, along with the mechanism of how motivation stimulates actual behaviour.

Self-concept and personality

It is well accepted in the marketing field that consumers patronise products and services with images congruent to their self-perception (Grubb & Stern, 1971). The self-concept or personal identity of an individual refers to the totality of his or her cognitive beliefs about her/himself (Brehm, Kassin, & Fein, 1999). In the field of CB, self-concept is viewed as a multi-dimensional construct integrating self-identity with social and aspirational aspects in the individual's self-description. Accordingly, self-concept is measured using four dimensions (real self-image, ideal self-image, social self-image and ideal social self-image) to explain and predict CB (Sirgy, 1982).

In this context, self-congruity theory, the perceived match between a product or its user personality and self-image, is mostly used to understand self-concept's applicability in tourism (Boksberger et al., 2011). Specifically, studies investigate how self-image influences perceptions of destination image (Chon, 1992; Sirgy & Su, 2000), destination choice (Beerli et al., 2007), brand personality (Usakli & Baloglu, 2011) and travel intentions (Hung & Petrick, 2012). Further studies are needed on how self-concept influences perceptions of destination advertising, destination brand preferences and destination brand personality. The literature is also under-developed on the antecedents of self-congruity in tourism and the consequences of self-congruity on perceived value, satisfaction and future behaviour. Boksberger et al. (2011) conclude that self-concept is applicable to tourism only when the construct is not operationalised as strictly as in the marketing field, that is, an almost perfect match as opposed to a perfect match between brand image and self-image is tolerated. It is well accepted in marketing that consumers have extended selves comprising people, places, experiences and possessions (Belk, 1988). Consumers buy products and brands to express multiple selves. In tourism, an emerging research strand is devoting attention to the extended and multiple selves of tourists. For example, Hyde and Olesen (2011) look at how possessions packed for air travel assist in the maintenance and construction of self-identity. Kim and Jamal (2007) find that repeat festival goers are able to reconstruct a sense of their desired self when they take participation, hence the experience of the event, seriously.

Personality is certain persistent qualities in human behaviour that lead to consistent responses to the world of stimuli surrounding the individual (Kassarjian, 1971). Personality is thus viewed as one part of a person's self-concept (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011). It remains one of the encompassing concepts in CB, likely having an influence on decision-making processes, purchase behaviour, product choice, attitude change, perceptions of innovation and risk-taking amongst many others (Kassarjian, 1971). In tourism, personality is a determining factor of tourist motivations, perceptions and behaviour (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2004). Measurement of personality mostly focuses on specific traits such as venturesomeness (Plog, 2002; Weaver, 2012) or extraversion and neuroticism (Faullant et al., 2011), rather than the full use of well-established scales such as the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg et al., 2006) and HEAXCO (Sohn & Lee, 2012). The most researched personality trait is sensation-seeking in the context of recreation and adventure experiences (see Galloway, 2002; Lepp & Gibson, 2008). Personality traits are also investigated as an antecedent of brand identification (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011) and tourist emotions (Faullant et al., 2011).

Expectations

Expectations play an important role in determining satisfaction, loyalty and other post-purchase behaviours (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993). There is a lack of consensus

regarding the nature of the expectations involved in consumer judgments (del Bosque et al., 2006). On the one hand, expectations are defined as desires or wants of consumers and relate to what consumers feel a service provider should offer rather than what they would offer (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). On the other, expectations may also reflect the standard that consumers expect when evaluating attributes of the product/ service offer (Teas, 1993). As such, expectation can be of different types such as efficacy and outcome (Bandura, 1977), predictive and ideal, desired and experience-based (del Bosque et al., 2006). For example, efficacy expectation is 'the conviction that one can successfully execute the behaviour required to produce the outcome' (Bandura, 1977, p. 193), while outcome expectation refers to 'a person's estimate that a given behaviour will lead to certain outcomes' (Bandura, 1977). Predictive expectations, defined as 'predictions made by customers about what is likely to happen during an impending transaction or exchange' (Zeithaml et al., 1993, p. 2), remain the most widely applied in tourism (del Bosque et al., 2006) but are heavily criticised in the services marketing literature for their definitional ambiguity (see Teas, 1993). Expectations may be unmet, exceeded or met during service delivery. According to the expectancy theory, a travel experience that meets or exceeds tourists' expectations will be remembered positively. Discrepancy theory, despite being heavily critiqued (Teas, 1993), suggests that the differences between the perceived outcomes a person receives and the expected outcomes determine satisfaction (Andereck et al., 2012). It is this disconfirmation of expectations that forms the basis of the SERVQUAL method of determining service quality (Fluker & Turner, 2000).

Earlier studies on tourist expectations largely focus on service-quality issues for hotels (Briggs et al., 2007) and destinations (Truong & Foster, 2006). Expectations are also analysed in other sectors such as adventure tourism (Fluker & Turner, 2000), ecotourism (Khan, 2003), travel agencies (del Bosque et al., 2006), tourist attractions (Sheng & Chen, 2012) and increasingly the volunteering sector (Andereck et al., 2012). It is generally agreed that expectations are formed through previous experience, personal (e.g. word-of-mouth) and non-personal communication sources (e.g. advertising), personal characteristics (e.g. nationality and gender), attitudes and motivations (Gnoth, 1997; Sheng & Chen, 2012; Zeithaml et al., 1993). Notable omissions in the tourism expectations literature include studies investigating the stability of tourist expectations over time, the psychological process through which expectations are fulfilled at the destination or at the point of service delivery, and the role and influence of factors such as information processing, service atmosphere, age cohort (e.g. Generation X versus Y) and tourist personality on expectation formation.

Attitudes

Consumer attitudes are an integral part of the marketing environment that can enhance or curtail marketing activities (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). Attitudes are generally understood as a 'person's degree of favorableness or unfavorableness with respect to a psychological object' (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000, p. 2). It is a learnt behaviour and a function of the consumer's perception and assessment of the key attributes or beliefs towards a particular object (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). Evaluation is thus the main component of attitudinal responses, as individuals evaluate, based on their accessible beliefs, concepts, objects and/or behaviour along dimensions such as good−bad or like−dislike (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). Attitudes are central to the theory on consumer decision-making (Newholm & Shaw, 2007), as classical views on attitude theory suggest attitudes predict behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). However, contemporary social psychological research on attitudes

questions the stability of attitudes, as they may shift as contextual factors (such as how issues are framed or affective states) change (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). This challenges the predictive and explanatory power of the Theory of Planned Behaviour, which is premised on attitudes towards a behaviour (along with subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) leading to the comparable behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991). This dilemma is central in relation to the reported 'attitude − behaviour gap' in CB (Newholm & Shaw, 2007), which we examine further later in the context of ethical consumption.

Research on travel behaviour relies to a large degree on the attitude construct, sometimes measuring attitude towards key attributes of an object (e.g. destination attributes forming destination image) and at other times measuring overall attitude (e.g. overall image). However, Gnoth (1997, p. 285) warns that there is 'an apparent irrationality underlying hedonic or emotionally-driven behaviour, which is a particular feature of holiday tourism'; thus, behavioural and cognitive models that assume a rational actor and posit attitudes as indicators of actual behaviour may be especially problematic when applied to tourism. Gnoth (1997) hence calls for a better understanding of attitudes in light of emotions as well as the deeper seated values that help organise attitudes. As noted earlier, the often affective nature of tourism consumption is a key difference between understanding CB in the field of tourism more specifically versus CB applied more widely.

Studies on consumer attitudes in the tourism literature address a diverse range of issues, such as post-trip attitude change towards hosts (Nyaupane et al., 2008), attitudinal differences towards complaining across hotel customers of different nationalities (Yuksel et al., 2006), anti-tourist attitudes among self-identified travellers (Jacobsen, 2000), attitudes towards the climate impacts of long-haul air travel amongst Norwegian consumers (Higham & Cohen, 2011), cross-cultural female evaluations of souvenir cultural textile products (Lee et al., 2009) and the attitudes of air travellers to using registered traveller biometric systems (Morosan, 2012). Additional work in tourism is needed on the impacts of emotions and moods in attitude formation, as affective states are shown to colour evaluative judgements (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000) such as satisfaction, destination/brand loyalty and personal involvement of consumers. This includes, for example, accounting for consumer mood and affect when measuring attitudinal responses to service, destination and supplier brands. Furthermore, CB research in tourism should aim to contribute back to the wider CB and social − psychological literature on attitude−behaviour relations, as the affective elements bound up with spaces of hedonic tourism consumption are of significance for broader consumption and human behaviour modelling.

Perceptions

Consumers typically perceive what they are expecting; this is usually based on familiarity, previous experience, values and motivations (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). Accordingly, perceptions remain one of the most engrossing concepts in marketing. Studies of perceptions are abundant in tourism; however, few define or discuss the concept of perception before employing it. Moutinho (1993, p. 11) describes perception as 'the process by which an individual selects, organises and interprets stimuli in a meaningful and coherent way'. Stimuli affect the senses, whether auditory, visual, tactile, olfactory and/or taste, and individuals selectively organise perceptions into meaningful relationships, with interpretation influenced by social and personal factors (Moutinho, 1993, p. 11). As theory on perception is drawn into CB from cognitive psychology, research on consumer perceptions tends to analyse cognitive elements in the perceptual process (Axelsen & Swan, 2010),

often at the expense of affective elements (Pike & Ryan, 2004), without due recognition that cognitive and affective dimensions interplay (Hansen, 2005).

Differences in perceptions often lead to variations in conation, or behavioural intent; a key implication of this for tourism is that perceptions, like attitudes, are crucial in constructing visitor involvement, destination image, satisfaction and service quality. Destination image continues as a major area of study (Lee & Lockshin, 2012; Li & Stepchenkova, 2012) in perceptions-related tourism CB research. Similarly, perceived service quality remains another topical area of research in tourism where perceptions are of importance. It is well accepted that differences may exist between consumers' expected and perceived service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985).

Besides studies of image formation and service quality, perceptions research in tourism often focuses on perceptions of risk and safety, dealing for example with visitors' perceptions of crime (Barker et al., 2003; George, 2010), terrorism and disease (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009), sensation seeking (Lepp & Gibson, 2008) and trips to risky destinations (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011). Recent novel applications concentrate on tourists' perceptions of medical tourism across differing national cultures (Yu & Ko, 2012), the impacts of wind turbines in recreational landscapes (Frantal & Kunc, 2011), and how wine and food festival managers can manipulate event attributes to shape positive consumer perceptions (Axelsen & Swan, 2010). These works, amongst others, signal that the vitality of perceptions research in tourism is likely to continue as researchers track consumer perceptions of changing social, political, environmental, technological and service-related issues.

Satisfaction

Satisfaction is viewed as a central CB construct because the extent to which consumers are satisfied influences future organisational performance in the form of, for example, profits, market image and market share (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994). By researching satisfaction and its mechanisms, marketers can obtain valuable information they can use in their attempt to influence satisfaction, either through strategic decisions such as segmentation and targeting or through manipulation of the marketing mix. Drawing on the constitutive and operational definition of concepts (Howard & Sheth, 1969), Correia, Moital, Oliveira, and Costa (2009) argue that researchers appear to agree on the (more abstract) constitutive definition of satisfaction, which defines it as an evaluation of, or a judgment about, a consumption event or its constituent parts (Oliver, 1997). The operational definition, according to Correia et al. (2009), is a more contentious issue, as it involves establishing both the areas that are evaluated (the content) as well as the mental heuristics (the process) employed in developing satisfaction judgements.

Three mental processes, also called heuristics or antecedents of satisfaction (Bowen, 2001), are favoured by tourist satisfaction researchers (see Szymanski & Henard, 2001, for a discussion of all heuristics): disconfirmation of expectations, performance and equity. Much empirical research on tourist satisfaction is based upon the *disconfirmation of expectations* (Akama & Kieti, 2003; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Hui et al., 2007) and the *performance* (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Crompton, 2003; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000) perspectives. Fewer studies examine satisfaction from an equity point of view (Song et al., 2012; Um et al., 2006). Despite being consumed in the presence of others, potentially resulting in different inputs and/or outputs across tourists (Bowen, 2001), the *social equity heuristic* is not explored to any extent in the tourism literature. Tourist satisfaction researchers also give scant attention to another mental process with an influence on satisfaction: attribution. While the wider CB literature has been devoting attention to attribution for a

long time (Tsiros, Mittal, & Ross, 2004), studies examining attribution within tourist satisfaction research are rare (Bowen, 2001), and consequently there is a clear need for more research on attribution within a tourist satisfaction context.

In addition to heuristics and attribution, another contested issue within the operational definition of satisfaction is the areas postulated to influence the degree of overall satisfaction. Two concepts, perceived value (Bradley & Sparks, 2012; Um et al., 2006; Williams & Soutar, 2009) and service quality (Akama & Kieti, 2003; Kim & Lee, 2011; Um et al., 2006), are amongst the most frequently researched determinants of tourist satisfaction. Other studies use the push−pull satisfaction approach (Alegre & Cladera, 2006; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). These studies ask tourists to evaluate the extent to which they are satisfied with a number of destination attributes (pull factors) and/or personal motives (push factors). Tourist−staff relationships also receive some attention (Hutchinson et al., 2009; Nam et al., 2011; Tsang & Ap, 2007); there is far less work, however, on tourist−tourist interactions as a determinant of satisfaction (Getz et al., 2001; Huang & Hsu, 2010; Wu, 2007). While these studies provide a much needed advancement in understanding how interactions between tourists influence satisfaction, this area is still under-researched.

Several researchers have moved away from examining perceptions about the product, and focus instead on the relationship between tourists and places as a determinant of satisfaction. This is achieved through the concepts of place attachment (Hwang et al., 2005; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Yuksel et al., 2010), place dependence (Yuksel et al., 2010) and personal involvement (Hwang et al., 2005; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Recently, a number of authors adopt a self-congruence perspective (Bosnjak et al., 2011; Nam et al., 2011), while a few studies examine tourists' psychological characteristics, such as novelty seeking, as determinants of satisfaction (Petrick, 2002; Williams & Soutar, 2009). Although these studies have broadened our understanding of what leads to (dis)satisfaction, considerably more consumer research is needed on these influences on satisfaction. From the above, it is evident that satisfaction spills over into the analysis of many other CB concepts.

Recognising the complexity of tourist satisfaction, research examines the extent to which satisfaction varies across (1) tourism-related sectors, (2) tourism products and destinations and (3) consumer types. The latter is by far the most frequently examined (Magnini et al., 2011; Master & Prideaux, 2000; Petrick & Sirakaya, 2004), with comparisons across sectors and products/destinations being less frequent. Exceptions include comparisons of satisfaction across a number of tourism services such as attractions, immigration and transportation (Song et al., 2012), across different destinations (Reisinger & Turner, 2002a) and across varieties of the same product such as the level of difficulty of ski slopes used (Matzler et al., 2008). Results tend to show differences across groups, validating the need for marketers to consider the specific characteristics of each segment when managing tourist satisfaction. As much less-researched areas, priority should be given to the study of satisfaction across sectors and products/destinations.

Trust and loyalty

Trust is perhaps the single most powerful tool available for building relationships with customers (Berry, 1996; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). There is no enduring consumer loyalty without trust (Sirdeshmukh, Singh, & Sabol, 2002). Trust refers to a 'willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence' (Moorman, Deshpandé, & Zaltman, 1993, p. 82). In marketing, trust is conceptualised as having two major components, confidence and reliability, and is significantly influenced by customer satisfaction

(Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Trust evolves through a dynamic process of exceeding consumer expectations and repeated satisfaction over time (Fam et al., 2004), and therefore plays a central role in determining loyalty and future behaviour (Kim, Chung, & Lee, 2011). In tourism, many studies draw from the marketing conceptualisation of trust in investigating its key antecedents (e.g. satisfaction) and consequences (e.g. word-of-mouth (WOM) and loyalty) (Sparks & Browning, 2011).

Customers' (re)purchasing behaviours are strongly associated with the degree of trust in the product and service (Kim et al., 2009). Thus, trust is viewed as either an attitude/belief or as a behavioural intention (Kim et al., 2011). Recent studies examine eTrust: whether a technology itself (e.g. the internet) and specific aspects of that technology (e.g. websites and on-line reviews) are objects of trust (Fam et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2009; Sparks & Browning, 2011). Yet, unlike the marketing literature, the tourism literature is under-developed on (1) cross-cultural formation of trust; (2) antecedents of trust such as service quality, consumer values, relationship duration and market orientation of tourism firms; (3) the impact of technology deployment in tourism and hospitality businesses on consumer and supplier trust; and (4) consequences of trust such as perceived risk and brand/destination attachment.

Loyalty remains a topical area of research in the CB literature. Loyalty is defined as 'a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronise a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or similar brand purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour' (Oliver, 1997, p. 392). In the tourism field, loyalty studies generally focus on tourism and service brands (Campo & Yague, 2008; Nam et al., 2011) and destinations (Bosnjak et al., 2011; Oppermann, 2000). In these contexts, it is implicitly assumed that repeat visitation infers loyalty (Petrick, 2004a).

Traditionally, three types of measurement (behavioural, attitudinal and composite) are used as indicators of loyalty (Oppermann, 2000). Due to difficulties in measuring attitudinal (affective) loyalty, behavioural measures are generally favoured (Petrick, 2004a). This approach is strongly criticised given that travellers can be loyal to a destination without revisiting (Chen & Gursoy, 2001); there is therefore the need to clearly distinguish between 'true' and 'spurious' loyalty (McKercher et al., 2012). Attitudinal loyalty is also perceived as a precursor to behavioural loyalty (Li & Petrick, 2008). Recently, McKercher et al. (2012) argue that tourism loyalty research needs to be reconsidered to account for the unique features of tourism, including vertical, horizontal and experiential loyalty. Vertical loyalty refers to when tourists may display loyalty at different tiers in the tourism system simultaneously (i.e. to a travel agent and an airline). Horizontal loyalty refers to when tourists may be loyal to more than one provider at the same tier of the tourism system (i.e. to more than one hotel brand), and experiential loyalty refers to, for example, loyalty to certain holiday styles (McKercher et al., 2012). These authors view loyalty research as an emerging field in tourism, partly due to the varied models applied to understand the phenomenon, the diverse travel experiences researched, and the scale and setting examined (service brand versus tourist destination). In most cases, the focus has been on a single unit of analysis such as a hotel or destination. Hence, there is a need to examine loyalty beyond a single unit of analysis and focus on loyalty to the tourist system (McKercher et al., 2012).

Besides conceptualisation and measurement issues, the CB literature extensively examines antecedents and consequences of tourism loyalty. Numerous studies exist on satisfaction (Li & Petrick, 2008; Nam et al., 2011), service quality (Um et al., 2006), perceived value and past visits (Petrick et al., 2001), trip quality (Campo & Yague, 2008), trust (Kim et al., 2011) and image (Bigné et al., 2001) as direct and/or indirect antecedents of loyalty. In many studies, satisfaction plays a mediating role in determining loyalty. The

most researched consequences of loyalty are revisit intentions and WOM communications (Bosnjak et al., 2011; Oppermann, 2000). Yet, several important gaps in the literature can be identified. First, the conceptual domain of loyalty needs an integration of the various forms of loyalty (attitudinal and behavioural), the operationalisation domain needs to consider other dimensions such as strength of preference of visitors, and that loyalty may manifest itself in other forms such as altruism and advocacy (see Jones & Taylor, 2007). Second, given that tourism experiences are emotionally laden (McIntosh & Thyne, 2005), several important antecedents such as brand personality, brand affect, perceived justice, conflict handling, perceived risk, personal involvement and consequences such as destination/ brand market share remain to be tested. Third, empirical testing of McKercher et al.'s (2012) concepts of vertical, horizontal and experiential loyalty is required for a more comprehensive understanding of the concept.

External influences

Our review now turns to a discussion of three external factors that we have identified as important contemporary influences on tourism CB: technology, Generation Y and the rise of ethical concern in consumption decisions. These factors affect the tourism consumption landscape, as part and parcel of impacting upon the key conceptual approaches discussed above. Generation Y ($n = 7$) and ethical consumption ($n = 9$) emerged as notably under-researched influences on tourism CB (Table 1). A total of 18 studies were included (Table 2), and we discuss these three critical external influences in turn, beginning with technology.

Technology

Consumers use technology for many consumption-related tasks such as searching for information, buying, sharing opinions and experiences and for entertainment purposes. Such widespread use of technology by a growing number of consumers is perhaps more evident in product categories such as tourism (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Therefore, effective tourism marketing requires a thorough understanding of how technology is developing and consequently shaping tourism CB. As the influence of technology on tourism CB builds, researchers are devoting considerable attention to this rapidly changing area. At present, tourists are able to access travel information and share travel experiences through a variety of technology-mediated outlets of companies and destinations, social networking websites and blogging and micro-blogging/video sharing websites. As the volume of content in these outlets rises and the display of information becomes more creative and user friendly, tourists' reliance on online sources is likely to grow.

Social media, for example, has developed into one of the most important influences on tourism CB. It provides a platform for not only sharing information but also for tourist experiences between consumers (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). Social media is already used at all stages of the holiday cycle: before, during and after the trip (Fotis, Buhalis, & Rossides, 2011). Not surprisingly, an emerging research strand evaluates how various social media are influencing tourism CB, including Vermeulen and Seegers (2009) on the impact of online hotel reviews on consumer choice, Papathanassis and Knolle (2011) on the usage of online reviews and Zehrer et al. (2011) on user reactions to travel blog recommendations. Recently, research shows that the reputation arising from eWOM behaviour impacts on important organisational performance variables such as price (Yacouel & Fleischer, 2012). Therefore, tourist organisations can benefit from a greater understanding

of how social media is affecting the way they are perceived by consumers, and how such perceptions impact on tourists' choices and behaviour.

The abundance of tourist information brought about by technology may result in consumer information overload (Inversini & Buhalis, 2009), a phenomenon that has received inadequate attention in tourism. Research on the strategies used to deal with excess (and often contradictory) information is thus needed. Future research should also continue to examine tourists' use of online information channels, whether written or non-written (e.g. videos, podcasts and virtual reality), throughout the travel consumption cycle, as well as how these different sources are integrated by tourists. Research in these areas can build on existing studies of Dickinger (2011), Fesenmaier et al. (2011) and Papathanassis and Knolle (2011). These studies can be complemented by an examination of the motives of using each information source. This area of tourist behaviour has received some attention in the literature (Dickinger, 2011; Martín & Herrero, 2012; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009).

Another fruitful area of research would focus on how technology impacts other stages of the decision and consumption process. For example, existing research on alternative evaluation frequently employs choice sets approaches (Decrop, 2010; see Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005, for a review of these models), but little consideration is given to how technology affects the development of choice sets. Some recent studies uncover how technology changes the tourist experience during the trip, including how smartphones influence the touristic experience (Dickinson et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012) and what influences the level of usage and interaction with WebGIS (Chang & Caneday, 2011). Given the ever-growing access to and usage of mobile technologies, future research should focus on examining how these technologies are impacting the ways in which tourists experience destinations. Ultimately, the analysis of how technology influences tourism CB will require sustained efforts as technological developments, and the ways in which consumers deploy such developments, continue to evolve.

From a methodological point of view, tourists' growing use of (mobile) technologies can expand our knowledge on travel behaviour by providing researchers the opportunity to use different methodologies (e.g. mobile ethnography) and data collection methods. These technologies facilitate the collection of different types of, and more accurate, CB data. For instance, empirical material can be collected and analysed through data mining techniques to examine tourists' spatial and temporal activities (Chang & Caneday, 2011; Orellana et al., 2012; Shoval & Isaacson, 2007).

Generation Y

A shift in generational dominance is purported as underway, as the generation referred to as Generation Y, at least in parts of the Anglophonic world, is gradually displacing the Baby Boomer and Generation X cohorts in the workforce (for an analysis of these earlier two cohorts see Beldona, 2005), and becoming the primary source of visitors for some destinations and tourism attractions (Pendergast, 2010). For marketers in general this suggests the rise of a significant segment with substantial purchasing power that needs to be catered for. Understanding their needs and behaviours will be a cornerstone of marketing success. Generation Y refers to individuals born approximately between 1982 and 2002; by 2020 this age group will become the most important tourism consumption cohort economically, and like most generational cohorts whose members tend to share a unique social character due to coming-of-age together, it is suggested they display (somewhat) common values, attitudes and behaviours (Benckendorff, Moscardo, & Pendergast, 2010; Leask,

Fyall, & Barron, 2013; Schewe & Meredith, 2006). The implications of changing generational cohorts for the tourism industry could be profound, as Schewe and Meredith (2006, p. 51) remind us that 'finding groups of consumers with strong, homogenous bonds is the "Holy Grail" of marketing'.

Generation Y is a term born out of the United States, with the combined forces of globalisation and the Information Age contributing to a larger generation gap between Generation Y and X than would typically be found in subsequent generations (Benckendorff et al., 2010; Leask et al., 2013). Generation Y, with much of its membership digitally native, is characterised as the 'net generation'; they are seen as consumption-oriented, identifying heavily with social groups (in both physical and virtual spaces), seeking instant gratification, accustomed to relative abundance, having a relatively high discretionary income and travelling frequently (Leask et al., 2013; Nusair, Bilgihan, Okumus, & Cobanoglu, 2013; Nusair et al., 2011). Research on the implications of Generation Yers for the tourism industry examines, for instance, the extent to which the UK attractions sector has adapted to suit their needs, wants and expectations (Leask et al., 2013), the challenges travel web vendors face in developing commitment from them (Nusair et al., 2011) and the roles that perceived risk/utility and trust play in developing loyalty from them to travel-related online social networks (Nusair et al., 2013).

The literature suggesting that Generation Y is unique compared to its preceding generational cohorts is still mostly based on studies of the US population (Benckendorff et al., 2010; Schewe & Meredith, 2006). Suggestions that the concept of Generation Y is applicable at a worldwide level are mainly premised on the observation that much of society is now globalised, and thus increasingly mono-cultural (Leask et al., 2013). The traits of Generation Y are thus likely to be somewhat culture-bound, with their applicability outside the Anglophonic world, particularly in emerging markets, yet to be sufficiently tested; for an exception see Ong and du Cros's (2012, p. 736) study of Chinese backpackers, where the post-Mao generation comprising this group has been 'collectively dubbed the "Generation Y" of the Chinese society'. Further empirical research is thus needed outside Anglophonic countries, such as in Schewe and Meredith's (2006) generational cohort analysis based on 'defining moments' within Russia and Brazil, respectively; however, these authors recognise that as generational cohorts only form in societies with the capability to mass communicate events of social consequence, the prospects for generational cohort analysis in lesser-developed nations may be limited. Also, studies that track the changing consumption patterns of Generation Yers as they progress through the life course, and soon Generation Zers, as they come of age, will be necessary if the tourism industry is to continue to adapt effectively to changing market characteristics.

Ethical consumption

A key trend influencing travel behaviour, at least within parts of more affluent nations, is a rising tide of concern over the morality of consumption. The common theories of consumer rationality are being partially subverted as consumption is increasingly bundled with issues of justice and conscience (Bezencon & Blili, 2010). For marketers, understanding the motivations and attitudes for ethical consumption offers opportunities to differentiate and position brands successfully. Ethical CB refers to 'decision making, purchases, and other consumption experiences that are affected by the consumer's ethical concerns' (Cooper-Martin & Holbrook, 1993, p. 113). Ethical consumption is set apart from other interests in consumer research by its overt socio-political nature, in which there is a growing conviction amongst some people that consumption in affluent economies needs some form of

restraint; it is consequently associated with a range of individual projects in resistance to consumer cultures, such as anti-consumption, voluntary simplicity, slow living and down-shifting (Newholm & Shaw, 2007). Ethical consumption is an under-examined dimension of CB, with much of the research in this area having focused on fair trade products, but also on boycotts and how sustainable CB may be encouraged, such as through social marketing (Newholm & Shaw, 2007).

In the field of tourism, Butcher (2009) outlines how the purchase of ecotourism pro-ducts, as an intended form of ethical consumption, represents tendencies in society towards substituting individual politicised consumption for collective political action, or as Low and Davenport (2005, p. 495) phrase the trend: 'shopping for a better world'. The tendency has been amplified in the last decade since the issue of climate change chal-lenged the trajectory of contemporary consumer lifestyles, with tourism consumption, par-ticularly its associated transport emissions, in the firing lines (see Gössling et al., 2012, for a dedicated review of CB and tourism demand responses to climate change).

The primary barrier for proponents of ethical consumption-seeking positive behaviour change is the so-called 'attitude–behaviour gap', in which consumers attest to caring about ethical standards in their consumption practices, but few reflect these standards in their actual purchase decisions (Bray, Johns, & Kilburn, 2011). Despite the importance of the attitude–behaviour gap for the prospects of ethical or sustainable tourism consumption, it is rarely investigated directly in tourism research (for exceptions see Antimova, Nawijn, & Peeters, 2012; Miller et al., 2010), with little consensus arrived at in the literature on how and if the gap may be bridged. This issue merits further attention, as do the situa-tional factors that may hinder ethical consumption; this represents a knowledge gap in tourism, but also in the CB literature more widely (Bray et al., 2011). Further work is thus needed on the availability of ethical tourism alternatives, such as forms of slow travel (Dickinson, Lumsdon, & Robbins, 2011), and the structural factors impeding consu-mers in the uptake of more sustainable travel behaviour (e.g. high rail costs versus low-cost airline fares). Additionally, longitudinal research is warranted that tracks actual changes in tourism demand if and when ethical consumption becomes mainstreamed in CB.

Opportune contexts for future research

Finally, our review now turns to our assessment of some key areas where future major research opportunities lie in the study of tourism CB. We focus on group and joint decision-making, under-researched segments, cross-cultural issues in emerging markets, emotions and consumer misbehaviour. We argue that these five areas constitute major areas in which the tourism CB literature is under-developed and therefore warrant consider-able future attention by tourism scholars. Table 2 shows that we included a total of 47 studies; group and joint decision-making ($n = 9$) stands out as the least researched among the research contexts reviewed (Table 1).

Group and joint decision-making

Past CB research in tourism typically focuses its analysis on individuals as opposed to households, groups of friends or work colleagues. Earlier review articles on tourism and CB (Dimanche & Havitz, 1995; Moutinho, 1993) call for a shift in scale to appraise family decision-making processes. The importance of considering group composition is emphasised by Campo-Martinez et al. (2010), who note that individual satisfaction may differ from that of a wider travelling group, with collective satisfaction potentially more

critical to revisit decisions. Kozak (2010) observes that different members of a household are typically jointly involved in travel decisions, with the specific dynamics dependent upon power relations among family members. Although families may now be seen as a 'decision-making unit', family members seek information and may employ influencing strategies to negotiate disagreements (Bronner & de Hoog, 2008, p. 967). Knowing how travel decisions are made within households, and how different family members may influence decision-making processes, is thus suggested as a crucial factor for the effectiveness of marketing strategies (Dimanche & Havitz, 1995; Litvin et al., 2004).

In a step away from focusing on individuals, Bojanic (2011) measures the effects of age, marriage and children on levels of shopping expenditures amongst Mexican nationals travelling in Texas, wherein family units are surveyed through accessing an adult representative. Although the study contributes to a segmentation of this market by 'modernised' family life cycle stages (recognising social trends of increased divorce, more couples choosing to not have children and more women in the workplace), it nonetheless collects data from individual subjects. In contrast, Dimanche and Havitz (1995) issue an earlier challenge for researchers to collect data from dyads and triads in order to better understand the dynamics of family holiday decision-making. Research on how spouses use tactics (Kozak, 2010), such as bargaining or persuasion, in coming to joint travel decisions has come some way in responding to this challenge. Multiple decision-makers are further pursued in the works of Kang and Hsu (2005) and Hong et al. (2009), which include both partners in their studies of spousal conflict resolution strategies and couples' repeat visitation behaviour, respectively. Furthermore, Wang et al. (2004) appraise the influence of children in family holiday decision-making, showing through surveys of parents and children of the same household that, at least in the context of Taiwanese families, children have significantly less influence in choosing the family's group package tour.

There is a notable lack of studies in tourism CB that move outside the notion of the 'traditional' nuclear family; the field consequently overlooks the tourism decision-making processes of other household configurations, such as same sex couples/parents or single parents. Additionally, few studies in tourism go beyond the family or household to analyse the influence of other reference groups, such as friends or work colleagues, on or within travel decision-making (for an exception see Decrop & Snelders, 2004). One other notable exception is Hsu et al. (2006), who examine the interpersonal influence of family, friends and travel agents on decisions to visit Hong Kong, and find that word of mouth from primary reference groups (i.e. family and friends) is the most influential. However, particularly salient now is the interpersonal influence of online networks on travel decision-making and behavioural changes (Qu & Lee, 2011), and in terms of joint decision-making, how online communities may make travel decisions together. For instance, Wang et al.'s (2012) study of mobile online networks shows how smartphone applications are already being used to facilitate novel inter-tourist interactions in the physical world in real time. There is certainly room for further research on how online networks are transforming travel decision-making, as this issue has profound implications for product/brand choice (e.g. the modification of accommodation booked based on user-generated contents) and the communication channels that marketers use to advertise products/services.

Under-researched segments

There are important minority groups within society whose diverse tourism consumption patterns and needs are still under-researched, thereby hindering effective marketing;

however the situation in some segments has been improving. For example, there is growing interest in understanding the travel behaviour (and constraints) of disabled persons (Daruwalla & Darcy, 2005; Lee et al., 2012). A recent flurry of work addresses some of the knowledge gaps concerning this niche market: Darcy (2010) examines the accommodation information preferences of people with disabilities, making both a business and social inclusion argument for more accessible tourism; Chang and Chen (2012) study the complaints, and thereby the service needs, of disabled air travellers; Eichhorn et al. (2008) explore the value of tourism information schemes for individuals with a disability; and Small et al. (2012) decentre the visual gaze in tourism experiences through a focus on the multi-sensory nature of tourism for visually impaired persons.

There are other notable minority segments within society around which the tourism CB knowledge base has been slower in developing. One such group is the gay and lesbian market. Hughs and Deutsch (2010, p. 454) affirm that being gay 'has an influence on holiday destinations, desired facilities and holiday frequency and expenditure'. Despite gay tourism representing a rapidly growing business opportunity for some destinations, both earlier (Clift & Forrest, 1999) and more recent studies (Melián-González et al., 2011) point out that research on this type of tourism is limited. Poria (2006), for instance, whose study examines the hotel experiences of gay and lesbian guests, notes little attention has been paid to the on-site tourism experiences of the gay and lesbian population. Hughs and Deutsch (2010) further emphasise that the gay market is not homogenous, but rather comprises sub-niches and accordingly explored factors of age and sexual orientation in the context of older gay men's holiday choice decisions. Similarly, Melián-González et al. (2011) focused on sun and beach gay-exclusive resorts, as one segment of gay tourism. Such studies suggest that given the scant research on gay and lesbian tourism in general, and the diversity of potential sub-niches that can be found within this tourism type, considerably more consumer research is needed on this potentially lucrative tourism market.

Another group that has been the subject of insufficient attention within CB research in tourism is migrant workers. This is unsurprising given that labour migration is typically analysed in terms of production, rather than consumption (for an exception see Hall & Williams, 2002). However, there are distinctive features to the tourism consumption patterns of migrant workers that have important implications for tourism flows and market segmentation. With labour migration increasing (see Janta et al., 2011), trips from the new home back to the birthplace or old home become a common occurrence (Duval, 2003), for not only visiting friends and relatives, but also to access services, such as medical or dental care. Connell (2013) accordingly notes that a large portion of international medical travel is by diasporic populations. A better understanding is thus needed of the mobility consumption constellations of growing populations of returning migrants, wherein tourism may be bundled in with a mix of other motivations and practices.

Cross-cultural issues in emerging markets

Much of the field of tourism's understanding of CB is based upon empirical studies of western generating markets and/or on theory conceptualised primarily from an Anglo-western vantage point (Winter, 2009). As the centre of economic growth, and correspondingly growth in outbound tourism, is relocating from the west to emerging markets (Cohen & Cohen, 2012), there is a clear need to better understand the changing consumption patterns within those nations. Of particular economic consequence is the rapid expansion in travel demand, both domestically and internationally, of the BRIC nations (Brazil,

Russia, India and China). China, for instance, is already the fourth largest global source of tourism spend (Yang, Reeh, & Kreisel, 2011). In order to effectively market to and host tourists from these (and other) rapidly modernising nations, a solid understanding will be needed of their respective travel attitudes, expectations, motivations, preferences and perceptions, and how these may change over time.

It is well established that there are cultural differences within and between nationalities that influence what motivates tourists and how they behave (Dimanche, 1994; Kozak, 2002; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Reisinger & Turner, 2002b). For instance, Lee and Lee (2009) found more differences than similarities in the behavioural patterns of Korean and Japanese tourists in Guam. Whilst many studies (Crotts & Litvin, 2003; Money & Crotts, 2003) rely on the etic framework of Hofstede's (1980) cultural value dimensions to investigate cross-cultural differences in tourist CB, Watkins and Gnoth (2011a) instead argue for a more emic approach, that of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) value orientation theory, which does not force respondents to express their values within a restricted provided set.

Both emic approaches that give a deeper understanding of cultural nuances and the more etic testing of the applicability of established concepts are necessary in the context of the travel behaviour of the BRIC nations and other emerging markets such as Indonesia, Nigeria and the United Arab Emirates. A considerable body of specialised work on the travel behaviour of Chinese tourists has already emerged in the last few years (Arlt, 2006), and focuses for instance on their expectations (Li et al., 2011), shopping behaviours (Choi et al., 2008; Xu & McGehee, 2012), attitudes, constraints and use of information sources (Sparks & Pan, 2009), and reference group influences (Hsu et al., 2006). There is far less work, however, on the travel behaviour of Brazilian, Russian and/or Indian tourists. Some exceptions include Kim et al. (2006) on the impact of environmental values on Brazilian domestic tourists' motivations, Choi et al. (2011) on the destination image of Korea by Russian tourists and Bandyopadhyay (2012) on how the tourism industry in India markets colonial nostalgia to Indian domestic tourists. These signal an underserved area in tourism CB research, as an insufficient understanding remains of several strong emerging markets that have powerful implications for the future shape of tourism demand.

Emotions

Several decades ago Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) argued that emotions should be central in conceptualisations of consumer experiences, with later authors reinforcing this idea through research on the so-called 'experience economy' (Carù & Cova, 2003; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). A growing body of work on tourism consumption emotions has emerged in the last few years, with a number of studies focusing on felt emotions. Both quantitative (Hosany & Gilbert; 2010; Lee et al., 2007, 2011) and qualitative (Bowen, 2001) studies consistently find emotions to influence satisfaction considerably. Yet, the overwhelming majority of survey-based satisfaction studies still fail to incorporate emotions in their conceptual models. In addition, stronger relationships between emotional satisfaction and overall satisfaction are generally found in festival/event research (Lee et al., 2011, 2007) than in other tourism-related cases (Petrick, 2004b; Williams & Soutar, 2009). This is perhaps due to the high experiential nature of festivals and is a research area to be explored further.

The examination of emotions within tourist experiences is usually associated with the notion of value (Lee et al., 2007, 2011; Petrick, 2002; Williams & Soutar, 2009). Consequently, measurement of emotions is biased towards positive emotions, such as enjoyment,

excitement and happiness (Hosany & Witham, 2010). A few notable exceptions exist, such as Grappi and Montanari (2011) and Nawijn (2011) who include both positive and negative emotions. As negative emotions may be sought and welcomed in some experiences (see Carnicelli-Filho et al., 2010, on white-water rafting; see also Faullant et al., 2011), future research should not only continue to examine the emotional dimensions associated with different types of tourist experiences, but also the role that negative emotions may play in influencing tourist satisfaction and visitors' attachment to destinations.

Given the existing body of work on felt emotions, it is not surprising that studies investigating factors that trigger emotional states remain scarce. Some recent studies attempt to examine what influences emotional responses, notably the attributes (or environmental factors) that might explain emotions (Lee et al., 2011; Nawijn, 2011). Hosany (2012) instead examines the extent to which selected cognitive appraisals (pleasantness, goal congruence, self-compatibility and novelty) influence joy, love and positive surprise. As different emotional states are likely to have varying causes, studying the triggers of emotions requires a focused analysis of individual emotions. Yet, few studies in tourism go beyond examining the causes of emotions at an aggregate level. Therefore, future research could mirror the strategy adopted by Carnicelli-Filho et al. (2010) who focused on an individual emotion (fear). Another important area for future research is in understanding how sensorial experiences (e.g. touch, smell) influence emotional responses. Brief references to sensorial aspects of tourist experience exist (Ballantyne et al., 2011), but this is clearly an area that needs further examination.

From a marketing perspective, there are two other areas of research that can further our understanding of the relationship between emotions and tourism CB. The first is the relationship between emotions and other evaluative constructs. Concepts such as brand personality and brand (destination/supplier) attachment contain both cognitive and emotional elements, and future research could examine their emotional component. The second area refers to the development and application of neuro-marketing to tourism CB. Neuro-marketing decisions are informed by affective neuro-science research, which 'enables the measurement of participants' psychological processes while they occur' (Yoon, Gonzalez, & Bettman, 2009, p. 19). This field of research is receiving growing attention within the CB literature (see Hubert & Kenning, 2008, for an overview of consumer neuroscience and Dalgleish, Dunn, and Mobbs (2009), for a more general review of affective neuroscience), but it has to date received virtually no attention within the context of tourism. One notable exception is the recent work by Pearce (2012) on the use of affective neuroscience to examine emotions associated with visiting home and familiar places.

Consumer misbehaviour

There is an implicit assumption in tourism CB models that consumers will behave 'properly', despite the recognition that consumer dissatisfaction and negative emotions, attitudes and perceptions exist that contribute to misbehaviour. Whereas the 'darker side' of CB has attracted increasing attention in marketing and management more widely, it has to date received limited attention within the context of tourism. Fullerton and Punj (2004, p. 1239) define consumer misbehaviour as 'behavioural acts by consumers, which violate the generally accepted norms of conduct in consumption situations' and thus represent 'the dark, negative side of the consumer'. Past research on customer misbehaviour, such as shoplifting, is primarily motivated by the high economic cost of such acts, whereas contemporary studies are turning to the drivers and outcomes of 'dysfunctional' customer behaviour, such as that of belligerents and vandals, which is often non-economically

motivated (Fisk et al., 2010). Such research draws from studies of deviance in psychology, and typically investigates either from the perspective of the customer (actor) or provider (target), often focusing on cognitive or rational explanations for misbehaviour and thereby overlooking potentially powerful affective behavioural antecedents (Fisk et al., 2010).

Several studies within tourism, however, reverse the actor and target, and instead focus on tourists as targets in the context of how service workers/providers misbehave through deception or rip-offs (Harris, 2012), harassment (Kozak, 2007) or crime (Brunt et al., 2000). An emphasis on tourist victimisation, and lighter forms of service failure, spawned studies on the darker outcomes of dysfunctional tourist services, such as tourist worry (Larsen et al., 2009), anger and regret (see Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011) in the context of tourist hotels and restaurants and the implications of these negative cognitive states and emotions for customer (dis)satisfaction, (mis)trust and switching behaviour.

Within tourism research on consumers as misbehaving actors, Cheng-Hua and Hsin-Li (2012) focus on managing unruly passenger behaviour in the airline industry by surveying the competence of ground staff to handle dysfunctional customer behaviours, such as violent speech or sexual harassment. Uriely et al. (2011) draw on psychodynamic theorists Freud and Jung in explaining how unconscious forces related to sex and aggression are gratified through defence mechanisms that lead to either normative or deviant tourist behaviour. However, as Sönmez et al. (2006) expose in their study of tourist binge drinking and casual sex on a North American spring break, which they warn may constitute a public-health hazard, deviance is experienced as normative behaviour by some participants, and is thus contingent on perceptions of situational social norms (see also Uriely & Belhassen, 2005, on tourists' drug consumption). This is a particularly important point in the context of perceptions of compulsive consumption, a darker side of consumption that has been explored in CB more generally (Benmoyal-Bouzaglo & Moschis, 2009), but hardly at all within tourism. This is despite the common English idiom 'to be bitten by the travel bug', which implies that tourism may be compulsively consumed (for an exception see Cohen et al., 2011, study on binge flying).

Conclusion

In this article we review the CB-related literature in three major tourism journals from 2000 to 2012, alongside some seminal works from both tourism and the wider CB and marketing fields. We provide a contemporary and extensive review of recent advances in the key conceptual approaches that have been used for understanding CB in the field of tourism: decision-making, values, motivations, self-concept and personality, expectations, attitudes, perceptions, satisfaction and trust and loyalty. Our review furthermore examines how three crucial external influences, namely technology, Generation Y and a rise in concern over the ethics of consumption, are impacting upon tourism CB. Along the way, we identify several research opportunities in these areas that tourism CB research should address. Finally, as part of our aim to contribute to the literature on a future research agenda for the study of CB in tourism, we complement our review with an identification and discussion of research opportunities on the topics of group and joint decision-making, under-researched segments, cross-cultural issues in emerging markets, emotions and consumer misbehaviour.

Our review here, however, is not without its limitations. CB is one of the most studied areas in the field of tourism, and our review does not take account of the range of contributions in other tourism journals. Furthermore, there are other relevant concepts (e.g.

reference groups, celebrity endorsement, lifecycle approaches, prestige and consumer culture theory), influences (e.g. increasing economic uncertainty in the West, the purported turn towards an 'experience economy') and research opportunities (e.g. sensorial approaches) that we do not address within the scope of this single review or do not cover in detail. Our review is intentionally subjective in its choice of concepts, influences and research opportunities, relying on our own assessment of the literature and the changing landscape of tourism CB. Also some of the more expansive conceptual approaches that we address here, such as decision-making, satisfaction and motivations, are such large topic areas with substantive bodies of work that they arguably could each be the subject of a dedicated review; thus future works may review those topics which we little explore and those that warrant a more comprehensive review in more detail.

We also do not go into depth here on methodological issues; however it is clear that there is an over-reliance on quantitative approaches in tourism CB research and most studies are cross-sectional. The implications of this are that knowledge in certain areas remains limited, particularly those not prone to survey-based research – an example being peer influence, where tourists are often not able (or willing) to recognise via questionnaires that such an influence exists; qualitative or mixed method approaches may give better leverage in some cases. A further implication of normative quantitative studies is that experimental designs and longitudinal approaches are relatively neglected in tourism CB research. Experimental research is fairly common with the wider CB literature (Perdue & Summers, 1986; Turley & Milliman, 2000) and its ability to quantify the effects of independent stimuli on behavioural responses is an arguable advantage over quantitative approaches that cannot verify causality effects. Additionally, more longitudinal research in tourism CB (Decrop, 2010) would provide better insight into the behavioural processes being investigated, thus offering a unique perspective on how the behaviour and its influences evolve over time, including a detailed account of how context and situation influences CB. Generating such types of knowledge will provide tourism organisations with invaluable market intelligence which can be reflected in the organisation's marketing strategy.

Finally, it is important that advances in CB research in tourism are brought to bear on the wider CB and marketing literature. While CB and marketing studies have considerable impact on the field of tourism CB, the latter little impacts the former. The flow of knowledge from the field of tourism back to the wider CB and marketing literature can be improved by studying the unique hedonic and affective aspects of tourism consumption, and how these are increasingly entangled with other facets of consumption in daily life and quality of life in general. Our review highlights a notable change from 2000 onwards where academic attention, both within tourism CB and in CB research more generally, is shifting from exploring the cognitive aspects of CB to the affective aspects. Tourism decision-making and consumption are often highly interpersonal and emotional. A large proportion of CB research in tourism rests on the assumption of bounded rationality and decision-making frameworks developed for consumer goods, without taking full account of the hedonic and emotional aspects of tourism consumption (Decrop & Snelders, 2004). CB research in tourism must take full account of these dimensions, and further mine this rich context to better develop our understandings of how travel behaviour interrelates with, and impacts upon, the broader consumption landscape.

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